

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 425 600

EC 306 941

AUTHOR Andrews, Jean F.; Franklin, Thomas C.
TITLE Why Hire Deaf Teachers?.
PUB DATE 1997-00-00
NOTE 47p.
PUB TYPE Reports - Descriptive (141)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Civil Rights Legislation; *Deafness; Educational History; Elementary Secondary Education; Higher Education; Minority Group Teachers; Minority Groups; *Preservice Teacher Education; *Special Education Teachers; Teacher Education Curriculum; *Teacher Employment; Teacher Recruitment; Teacher Shortage; *Teachers with Disabilities
IDENTIFIERS Americans with Disabilities Act 1990; *Texas

ABSTRACT

This paper reviews the role of deaf teachers in the education of deaf children and urges the hiring of such teachers, especially in Texas. Part 1 presents current data on deaf teachers in Texas and the nation, reviews the history of deaf teachers, considers the modern day preparation of deaf teachers and some court cases supporting deaf teachers under the Americans with Disabilities Act. It finds that barriers such as standardized testing, lack of support services, discrimination, and lack of awareness of deafness among principals in hiring positions are keeping deaf professionals out of schools. Part 2 discusses curriculum, staffing, and strategies that universities can use to train deaf teachers in schools and programs with deaf children. It emphasizes the need for additional deaf teachers and administrators as well as deaf professionals who represent ethnic minority groups and urges a curriculum containing courses on: deaf children with additional disabilities, legal issues and deafness, American Sign Language, multiculturalism, educational technology; and speech and audiology. In addition, practices and student backing should be included. Also important in such programs is deaf culture sensitivity and leadership training. (Contains 64 references.) (DB)

* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *

Why hire deaf teachers?

Jean F. Andrews, Ph.D.
Thomas C. Franklin, Ph.D.
Lamar University

Address all correspondence to: Dr. Jean F. Andrews
P.O. Box 10076
Dept. of Communication Disorders
Beaumont, TX 77710
409-880-1848
409-880-2265 FAX
E-mail: jandrews47@AOL.COM

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND
DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS
BEEN GRANTED BY

Andrews

EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

1

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

This document has been reproduced as
received from the person or organization
originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to
improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this
document do not necessarily represent
official OERI position or policy.

Jean F. Andrews, Ph.D. (CED) is professor and Director of graduate programs in deaf education at Lamar University where she teaches courses in the masters and doctoral programs in deaf education.

Thomas C. Franklin, Ph.D., CCC/A is an assistant professor of audiology. He teaches audiology classes and is the Director of Clinical Audiology.

Why hire deaf teachers?

Abstract

Historically, deaf teachers have played a vital role in the education of deaf children in the U.S. Today, though in Texas, few deaf children have opportunities to meet deaf teachers. Barriers such as standardized testing, lack of support services, discrimination and lack of awareness of deafness among principals in hiring positions are keeping deaf professionals out of schools. In Part I we discuss current data on deaf teachers, trace the history of their role in deaf education and give a rationale why we should be hiring more. In Part II we discuss curriculum, staffing, and strategies for preparing deaf teachers.

Why hire deaf teachers?: Part I

"I never had a deaf teacher until I was in the sixth grade. Then finally, I had someone who understood my communication and my experiences as a deaf person."

(Deaf graduate student, LU, 1994)

Many deaf graduate students in the teacher-training program at Lamar University express these same concerns. These remarks point to the pivotal role deaf teachers play in deaf education. Identity formation, language acquisition, and social and emotional development are enhanced. Most deaf children, though, seldom have a deaf teacher. In fact, nationwide, we found only 15.6% of teaching faculties to be deaf with only 11.6% of these programs having deaf administrators (Andrews & Jordan, 1993). See Note 1. Also, see Table 1 & 2.

Insert Table 1 & 2 about here.

Texas data

Texas has 4,500 deaf and hard-of-hearing children (D/HH) enrolled in the Regional Day School program, 400 at the Texas School for the Deaf, and the 200 in postsecondary programs. Of 30 out of 72 programs (42%) serving deaf students in Texas who responded to a nationwide survey, only 13 program directors reported they employ deaf teachers and administrators (see Note 2). In fact, our survey found only 57 deaf teachers and eight deaf administrators. Further, the majority of these deaf professionals are White even though 56% of deaf children in Texas are from minority backgrounds. See Table 3, 4 & five.

Insert Table 3, 4 & 5 about here.

4

Not surprising, the Texas School for the Deaf (TSD) and the Southwest Collegiate Institute for the Deaf (SWCID) employ 75% of these deaf professionals. Most deaf children in Texas, however, are enrolled in public day school programs with no deaf adult role models.

Texas ranks fourth in the top ten states employing deaf professionals. Washington, D.C., New York and Maryland employ more deaf professionals in education programs. These states employ large numbers because Gallaudet University is located in D.C., Maryland's proximity to it, and the National Technical Institute for the Deaf in New York--all attract deaf adults in the education field. See Table 6.

Insert Table 6 about here.

University teacher-education programs enroll few deaf graduate students. In fact, only about 9.3% of the students in teacher-preparation programs in the U.S. are deaf (Coryell, 1989).

Most likely, the number of deaf teachers will continue to decline because few deaf adults are being trained to replace those teachers reaching retirement age or leaving for other careers. Likewise, in Great Britain few deaf adults go to college with fewer entering the teaching profession (Daniels & Corlett, 1990; Silo, 1990).

History of the teacher who is deaf

Deaf teachers have actively participated in the history of deaf education (Lane, 1984; Gannon, 1989). When Abbe de L'Epee (1712-1789) opened the first public school for deaf youths in Paris in 1771, he recognized the valuable contributions deaf adults made and he promoted successful deaf students to faculty positions. During this time, in 1778, Samuel Heinicke (1727-1790) founded a school for the deaf in Germany which used only speech and

speech reading or lipreading--methods which excluded deaf teachers. (Van Cleve, 1987).

However, in France, L'Epee and his successor, Roche Ambrose Sicard (1742-1822) continued to employ a deaf staff of cooks, gardeners, teacher's aides, teachers and supervisors (Lane, 1984).

Sicard took his best deaf students--Jean Massieu and Laurent Clerc--on lecture tours throughout Europe where they met Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet (1787-1851), an American seminary student. Gallaudet was investigating methods of teaching deaf children. He later returned to the U.S. with Clerc and they established the American School for the Deaf in Hartford, Connecticut in 1817. This school used sign language exclusively (Lane, 1984).

Clerc's sign language--a combination of the French sign language and the indigenous American Sign Language-- quickly spread throughout the U.S. Clerc distinguished himself as teacher and teacher-educator. Clerc's graduates became leaders and teachers in school for the deaf. During his era, 40 to 50% of the teaching faculty were deaf persons (Lane, 1984). Clerc was just one of many deaf leaders to establish schools. From 1817 to 1980, twenty-six schools were started by deaf persons in the U.S. (Gannon, 1981).

The hiring of deaf teachers, though, was doomed by an international conference in Milan, Italy in 1880. A resolution was passed which banned sign language. Speech was designated as the only communication method to be used. The era of "oralism" began. Now, deaf teachers were fired and replaced with speech teachers. But a few were retained in vocational programs for older deaf youths (Moore, 1996).

Deaf teachers were not hired in America's first oral schools which opened in New York and Massachusetts in 1867. Sign language was forbidden as educators believed it prevented deaf

people from assimilating into American culture. Further, sign was thought to alienate deaf children from their hearing families. Deaf marriages were discouraged too. Such matches were thought to increase the number of deaf babies (Van Cleve, 1987). Today, with current knowledge about genetics and etiologies, we know that most deaf babies are born to hearing parents (Shaver-Arnos & Israel, 1995).

While oralism was successful for some postlingually deafened individuals, it failed many prelingually deaf children (Vernon & Daigle, 1995). Oral methods, then, dominated the field until the 1960's. But, then researchers discovered the positive effects of signing (see reviews in Vernon & Andrews, 1990; Moores, 1996). Teachers began to use a combination of signs and speech within a philosophy called total communication. Total communication was defined as the use of all forms of communication: speech, signs, finger spelling, reading, writing, gestures, and audition (Stedt & Moores, 1990).

Parents were encouraged to use signs as soon as the child's deafness was diagnosed. The total communication philosophy spread rapidly throughout the country. Today, about 90% of the programs in the U.S. use it. There are private, oral schools, however, which do not use sign at all but use speech exclusively. But these have low enrollments compared to programs using total communication (speech & signs).

The tides of deaf education changed significantly in the next 40 years. In the 1960's the linguistic research of Dr. William Stokoe and his colleagues gave academic and scientific credence to the structure of American Sign Language. Previously believed to be only gestures, Stokoe's work analyzed ASL structure and found that it had all the elements (phonology, semantics, syntax,

pragmatics) of spoken languages (Stokoe, 1960; 1993). With the academic credibility, sign language spread through schools and universities where teachers were trained.

In the 1970's and 1980's educators invented manual codes of English which took ASL signs, put them in English word order, and used invented signs for verb tenses and other morphemes. These Signed English systems spread throughout the U.S. particularly in preschool and elementary programs for deaf children. Currently, there is a debate over the utility of these manual codes of English (Johnson, Erting, & Liddell, 1989; Stedt & Moores, 1990). While research shows these English codes are useful in developing English word order, vocabulary and complex sentence structures, other research has shown the codes do not help in the development of English morphemes and other grammatical structures (Bornstein and al., 1980; Schick & Moeller, 1992).

Many deaf adults don't like these codes. They prefer ASL and believe these invented systems are artificial, awkward and represent language oppression (Bienvenu, 1994; Baker & Cokely, 1980).

Modern education for the teacher who is deaf

School administrators in the 1970's and 80's were faced with a dilemma--signs were accepted but few were trained to use them. In the late 60's, Western Maryland College (WMC) in Westminster, Maryland set up a graduate program to train teachers in the total communication philosophy. Today, WMC is the nation's largest producer of deaf teachers. WMC graduates now work in teaching and leadership positions throughout the country. On the west coast, the California State University at Northridge (CSUN) started a masters leadership training program

in 1964 (Jones, 1986). Both WMC and CSUN have trained the majority of deaf teachers and leaders in the country. These programs have significantly impacted the training of deaf teachers in the country by accepting large numbers of deaf candidates, and offering courses in deaf culture and American Sign Language.

The Deaf President Now movement in 1988 also influenced the modern view deaf teachers and leaders. The student protest resulted in the selection of the first deaf president in the 123 year history of Gallaudet University, the only liberal arts university for deaf persons (Christensen & Barnett, 1995). After this protest, more deaf teachers and leaders were hired in residential schools especially at the superintendent level. Today, more day school programs for deaf children in Texas have made requests to Lamar University for deaf student- teachers and deaf graduates to fill faculty positions.

The 1990's also brought wider acceptance of the bilingual-bicultural (bi-bi) philosophy for language instruction. This philosophy incorporates a set of methods which uses American Sign Language to teach English (Strong, 1995; Mahshie, 1995; Vernon & Daigle, 1994). Deaf teachers play a vital role in the bi-bi model because most are fluent users of ASL.

With the passage of Public Law 94-142 (1975), later renamed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA 1991) and the American with Disabilities Act (ADA 1990), more college-bound deaf students are choosing hearing universities to earn their degrees and teacher certificates. This has created obstacles for deaf persons. Some states require deaf students to student-teach with hearing children prior to getting their deaf education certificate. Further, departments of education have been reluctant to accept deaf candidates because they could not pass

a speech and hearing test. Other universities have not had the resources for interpreters and tutors. Thus, deaf applicants have been rejected from teacher-education programs. Nevertheless, these Federal laws required universities to provide equal access to deaf candidates and deaf people have challenged them in court.

In one case, *Grantham vs. Southeastern Louisiana University*, a deaf woman was denied entrance into student-teaching because she could not hear. This woman sought a degree in regular education, then wanted to earn a Masters degree in deaf education. The university claimed her deaf speech and sign language would be harmful to the hearing children whom she would work with during her practice teaching. They also doubted her abilities to control the class, participate in fire drills, take on recess duty and have conferences with parents. With the protections ADA provided, the deaf woman won the case and was allowed to earn her teaching certificate. She successfully passed the program and now is employed in a program for deaf children. Despite this hard won case which lasted more than two years, deaf teachers still face barriers.

What's keeping them out?

Standardized testing, writing skills, curriculum differences, lack of support services and state-mandated teacher competency examinations continue to be barriers for the deaf teacher. Consequently, in many states there is a decline in the number of deaf adults enrolled in teacher-training programs (Andrews, 1992; Moulton, Roth & Tao, 1987; Prickett & Martin, 1991).

It has been questioned whether standardized teacher competency tests, in fact, measure the skills that separate the skilled from the unskilled teacher. Some believe the characteristics of a good teacher can only be determined by a performance-based test. For example, teachers must

be able to communicate effectively with students. Also, a good teacher must have knowledge of the area they are teaching. They must know how to motivate students to learn and manage their behavior in class. But standardized tests cannot measure these skills.

Many deaf students also do not do well on the verbal sections of standardized tests such as the Stanford Achievement (SAT) test or the Graduate Record Exam (GRE). Because English is their second language, they have not had the exposure to English which is needed to do well on these tests. When deaf applicants have to compete for slots in graduate school with hearing students who are native users of English, this unfairly penalizes them.

Likewise, deaf teachers also have difficulty with written compositions. They have not had the exposure to English nor have their secondary schools emphasized writing skills. Consequently, they come to college and struggle through essay examinations and term papers. Again, they are unfairly penalized because their English skills are not equal to their hearing peers who have been hearing English all their lives (Vernon, 1970; Berent, 1993).

Inappropriate college curricula has also hampered deaf students' success in teacher-training programs. Traditionally, deaf education programs have overemphasized speech and hearing sciences (Venn, Swerwatka & Shreve, 1982; Moulton and al., 1983). This is changing in the 1990's as more programs are adding courses in deaf studies and culture, ASL, and bilingual methods of language instruction (Mahshie, 1995).

Still, another barrier is lack of support services. Deaf teachers need sign language interpreters, note takers and tutors. Many rural universities do not have a pool of qualified sign language interpreters. Even with a certified interpreter, in a large classroom with the instructor's

lectures, student discussions, notes written on the blackboard, the deaf student misses information.

Note takers and tutors are needed to fill in these gaps. In fiscally tight times, many universities will not make the commitment to provide these services for a small number of deaf students even though these services are mandated by ADA (DuBow, Geer & Strauss, 1992).

Teacher competency exams are also barriers. State mandated tests have virtually eliminated deaf persons as well as minority persons from teaching (Prickett & Martin, 1991). Today, more than 45 states require them and this trend is increasing. The bias and discriminating nature of these tests involves cultural and linguistic factors. As a result, state and national committees have been set up to investigate bias in these tests.

The Texas Association of the Deaf (TAD) and the Texas Commission on the Deaf and Hearing Impaired (TCDHI) have voiced their disapproval of the Texas competency test for teachers of the deaf called the ExCET (TAD, 1991). Two national committees--the Commission on the Education of the Deaf (COED, 1988) and the National Task Force on Equity in Testing Deaf Teachers (Martin & Prickett, 1991) have also recommended changes in testing content and procedures based on the bias nature of other state's teacher-competency tests such as the National Teachers Exam (NTE). Today, deaf teachers in Texas are exempted from taking the ExCET-HI until a more appropriate test is found (TEA, 1995).

One result of the ExCET waiver has been a steady increase of deaf teachers earning their certification and masters degrees. Lamar University has graduated 19 deaf teachers in the past decade, of whom 13 work in public school programs. See Table 7.

Insert Table 7 about here.

Despite these changes, discrimination against deaf teachers still exists (Moore, 1996).

Today's practice of on-site management allows the school principal to hire all teachers. Most have no training in deafness nor do they not understand the psychological, emotional and linguistic benefits of hiring deaf teachers. Instead, they focus on the deaf candidates lack of speech and hearing skills. Principals have often voiced practical concerns to us such as can deaf teachers handle recess or lunch duty? How will they hear announcements or fire drills? How will they communicate with faculty and parents? With school expenses such as band and football uniforms, trips etc. how can the school afford interpreters? Do the small numbers of deaf adults and children at a public school justify the expense of interpreters, TDD's, visual alerting devices? These concerns may overwhelm principals and jeopardize the deaf applicant from being treated fairly and competing successfully for a teaching position.

Why hire deaf teachers?

As a teacher, counselor, principal/administrator, deaf persons demonstrate as a living example how deafness does not prevent success in school nor reaching career goals. Deaf children need role models to develop healthy and realistic images of themselves as adults. This results in higher levels of positive self-esteem and feelings of belonging. Most deaf children have hearing parents and they often feel isolated and apart from family activities. Deaf teachers have similar developmental experiences and can help young deaf children work through these feelings of alienation and separation. They can teach young deaf children about deaf culture along with coping mechanisms in dealing with a largely, non-signing, hearing society.

Deaf teachers can also help with children's language skills--both in ASL and English. The

acquisition of sign language is accelerated when deaf adults are in the classroom. Most deaf children do not meet deaf adults in school so they do not receive advanced ASL input. Consequently, their only signing models are their peers. While hearing children have the benefits of fluent adult speakers, most deaf children have hearing teachers who learn sign as a second language, thus their models are rarely fluent signers. Imagine ourselves as hearing children and never being exposed to adult models of English. Clearly, our lack of fluent adult role models would affect our learning English. Likewise, lack of adult signing models limits deaf children's acquisition of sign language.

Most importantly, deaf teachers can understand the signing of deaf children especially those with limited signing skill. Even though most prelingually deaf teachers do not have competency in English, often they make good English teachers. They can help the deaf child translate signs into simple English words and sentences. This ability to communicate simple English is ignored and the teacher's fluency in English is considered more important. But, it's the teacher's ability to understand the language of the child which is the critical factor (Vernon, 1970). Put in another way, instead of requiring deaf teachers to score high on standardized measures of English, as teacher-educators we need to determine the deaf adult's ability to explain simple English to deaf children. This is a challenge for teacher-educators. We discuss this and other issues related to "how to prepare deaf teachers" in Part II of our article.

The Preparation of Deaf Teachers: Part II

Jean F. Andrews, Ph.D.
Thomas C. Franklin, Ph.D.

Part II discusses curriculum, staffing, and strategies that universities can use to train deaf teachers in schools and programs with deaf children.

There is increasing pressure to make more and better use of deaf adults as teachers and administrators. This has been notable since the selection of I.K. Jordan as Gallaudet's first deaf president. Today there are at least 20 or more deaf superintendents at state schools for the deaf and the demand for more deaf teachers of deaf children has been dramatic. As we elaborated in Part I, deaf professionals are respected as positive role models, valued for their sign skills, and appreciated for their understanding of the problems inherent in hearing loss (Moulton and al., 1987; Moores, 1996).

But despite strong professional and political support, deaf adults constitute only about 15.6% of the teachers and 11.6% of the administrators in school and programs for deaf children. In a national survey conducted by Lamar University faculty, only 805 deaf teachers and 114 deaf administrators were found in a pool of 6,073 professionals from 349 deaf education programs (Andrews & Jordan, 1993).

The need for minority-deaf professionals

In the U.S., 41% of deaf children are from minority homes; in Texas, the figure is 56%. School-age minority populations are increasing at a faster rate than non-minority populations (Schildroth & Hotto, 1996). Minority teachers make up only 10% of the deaf

education teaching force with 2% of the teachers being Mexican-American, 6.7% African-American, and 1% Asian-American (Andrews & Jordan, 1993). Kindergarten through twelfth grade teachers who are themselves deaf and who represent ethnic minority groups are rare. In our national survey, we found only 34 minority-deaf teachers and one minority-deaf administrator (Andrews & Jordan, 1993).

Clearly the need for additional deaf teachers and administrators as well as deaf professionals who represent ethnic minority groups are needed in the nation to meet the needs of our changing school-age population. Realizing the importance of recruiting, preparing, and finding teaching positions for deaf adults and minority-deaf adults, Lamar University has updated its teacher-training curriculum, secured Federal funding and bolstered its student support services. Since 1986, the deaf enrollment has increased from three to 25 deaf students enrolled in undergraduate and graduate programs. Of these graduates, two have been minority-deaf. See Figure 1.

Insert Figure 1 about here.

Curriculum

Curriculum, too, must reflect the demographic changes in the school-age population as new graduating teachers will work with children from diverse cultures and backgrounds. A visionary approach to teacher-training for the 1990's into the 21st century may include a curriculum offering course work in: deaf studies and culture, multiculturalism, first and second language acquisition and development, bilingual-bicultural approach to language instruction, multihandicapping conditions, law, modern math and science instructional

methods, speech and audiology, curriculum, American Sign Language, psychology of deafness, educational technology, practicum and student teaching.

Deaf Children with additional disabilities

Course work in deaf multihandicapped conditions is important as 30 to 40% of deaf children today have one or more disabilities in addition to deafness which are educationally significant. That is, teachers today can expect one fourth to one third of their class to have a learning disability, an emotional disability, a visual problem, other handicaps or a combination of disabilities which interfere with learning (Schildroth & Hotto, 1986).

Legal issues and deafness

Teachers are advocates for deaf children and their families. It is therefore important they receive a course in law and deafness. IDEA and ADA are just two laws which affect deaf children in schools (duBow and al. 1994). Deaf periodicals such as the Silent News and the NAD Broadcaster typically have one to two pages of coverage on legal issues related to deaf persons. Knowledge of court cases involving interpreters, deaf youth criminals, public education and other issues that would help teachers be more effective as well as protect themselves.

American Sign Language

In the past, teachers would learn sign language on the job interacting with deaf children because universities did not offer a wide variety of sign language classes. In fact, most teacher-training programs only offered a minimum of two sign classes (Maxwell, 1985). This was not sufficient training.

Most times, deaf students enter a university with fluent ASL skills. But some deaf students do not have these skills especially if they have been educated in mainstreamed programs. These deaf teachers-in-training need sign language instruction too.

Quality teacher-education programs should offer a minimum of four rigorous courses in ASL and they should employ native deaf adults to teach them. A sign language laboratory can provide hearing students with additional practice too. For example, at Lamar University, a sign language laboratory is staffed by deaf graduate students providing additional opportunities for interaction with signing deaf adults.

Multiculturalism

Few teachers of deaf children have been trained in multicultural education (Christensen, 1993). Knowing that 41% of the deaf children in the U.S. are from minority homes and that minority deaf representation in Texas is 56%, we need to provide teachers with multicultural training so they can deal with our increasingly diverse society. Deaf immigrant children from Mexico, South America and Asian countries have special language and cultural needs too.

Educational Technology

Recent technical innovations such as telecommunications (telecommunication devices for the deaf, telephone relay services, fax machines, Internet, E-mail, World Wide Web etc.), visual alerting devices, personal computers with CD-ROMs, and television programming with satellite uplink or downlink captioning hold great promise for deaf students. The highly visual nature of multimedia software--pictures, sign video inserts, graphics, animation, and

captioning are particularly suited to students with hearing losses (Pollard, 1993; King, Noretsky, Larkins & Naumann, 1993). For deaf children who need additional skills in English, multimedia technology allows text to be augmented by computerized sign dictionaries which can include the facial expressions, head tilts, eyebrow raises, and non-manual cues which can be used to encode the grammar of sign (Pollard, 1993). However, few teachers of deaf children are trained to use the newer forms of educational technology (Harkins and al., 1996; King and al., 1993). Lamar University has two multimedia computer labs which are accessible to students in deaf education. Students, also take courses in multimedia as part of their training.

Practica and Student-Teaching

Masters level students work for a full day each week in a classroom with deaf children. Over their two-year program, students are provided with experiences with a large number of deaf children from different cultural backgrounds, with ranges of hearing losses and with different disabilities. Most students earn 300 hours of classroom experience before they enroll in student teaching.

Students are required to student-teach for six weeks in a day school program and six weeks at a residential school. This gives them both types of placement experiences. While most teachers will work in day school programs, it is important for them to learn about the services residential school provide. Residential schools can become a resource for future teachers. And they can learn the networking skills during their teacher preparation.

Upon completion of the program, graduates receive certification by the Council of

Education of the Deaf (CED) and receive a Texas teachers certificate for levels K through 12 in deafness by the Texas Education Agency (TEA). In Texas, deaf education certification is all-level. That is, Texas teacher certification does not distinguish between elementary and secondary teachers of the deaf or between teachers of the deaf who teach history as opposed to those who teach math. It could be easily argued that deaf children would be better served by teachers with training and certification specific to age groups and academic disciplines. Short of changing State certification regulations, we approach this problem by recruiting graduate students who already have Bachelor's degrees and teacher certification in early childhood education, elementary education, middle school and secondary education, or special education.

The role of speech & audiology

Speech and auditory training have been major components in the education of deaf children, particularly in the past 50 years due to increased amplification technology. A generally accepted educational precept is that deaf children need speech to communicate with hearing persons. This has been emphasized so much that many prelingually deafened adults, especially those who have not benefited from this therapy, sometimes harbor hostile feelings towards speech and auditory instruction. They deeply resent the hours spent practicing meaningless speech sounds and missing important content areas of school instruction as math, social science, science etc. leading to delays in knowledge acquisition. Sadly, this is a common experience of many deaf adults who have graduated from public schools in Texas and in the nation.

With the re-introduction of sign into classroom instruction with total communication in

the 1970's, there has been more balance in schools today. Using sign language to teach subject matter, most deaf children, especially younger children, receive some speech instruction every day and most wear amplification equipment as hearing aids or auditory trainers.

The rationale for including speech and auditory instructional competencies within Lamar's program is ensure students are trained to work with individuals with a variety of ranges of hearing loss. Hearing loss covers a broad spectrum of losses and types. Program graduates are placed in classrooms with children who have moderate to severe hearing losses and many of these children benefit from amplification and speech instruction.

The amount and type of speech and auditory training instruction, however, must be understood within a realistic context. For example, it is important to understand that a person whose hearing deficit occurred before age three and whose loss is severe enough to prevent the understanding of speech with or without a hearing aid, will generally not learn to speak normally. Even after years of training, intelligible speech for conversational use is rarely acquired (Jensema, Karchmer, & Trybus, 1978). Only in rare cases is natural speech mastered by deaf people.

Although speech is taught in most programs for deaf children, there have been few objective studies which measure improvement or change as a function of time and instruction (Vernon & Andrews, 1990). One study, using a teacher-rating scale as measurement, found no significant improvement of speech intelligibility among deaf students over several years of instruction. The amount of improvement was more a function of the amount of residual

hearing than of instruction (Jensema, Karchmer, & Trybus, 1978).

All deaf children should be given the opportunity to learn to speak. Progress should be assessed objectively, and as long as significant improvement occurs, instruction should be continued. Even after there has been a leveling off, some instruction is needed to maintain existing speech skills. But care should be taken as to not waste many hours of vital school time teaching speech at the expense of other instruction, to children whose speech intelligibility has ceased to improve significantly. On the other hand, speech instruction should be provided to hard-of-hearing and other deaf children who can benefit from it (Vernon & Andrews, 1990).

Recently, with the deaf empowerment movement in the U.S., there has been a rejection of the pathological or medical model of deafness and an embracing of a cultural-linguistic model (Baker & Cokely, 1980; Lane, 1992). Linguists have argued for the use of American Sign Language in the classroom (Johnson, Erting, & Liddell, 1989). Within such a climate, some educators have supported not using speech and auditory training at all in daily communication in classrooms with deaf children. Their rationale is that ASL is better understood without voice and that it is through vision that deaf children learn best (Johnson, Erting & Liddell, 1989). In fact, there are programs which support a policy of "voice-off" where speech is not used for everyday communication. These programs have not completely eliminated the use of speech and speech instruction. Instead, speech is offered as separate subject. In other schools, speech has been offered as an elective leaving the choice up to the deaf students themselves to choose whether or not they want to take speech as a subject or

related service.

Lamar's teacher-training program offers courses specializing in speech and audiology instruction within the context of a bilingual-bicultural approach to language learning. Such a balanced view is based on the rationale that deafness spans a wide range of onset and hearing losses. There is diversity within the deaf culture relative to benefits from hearing aids. For instance, some deaf children have late onsets. Many have residual hearing and benefit from amplification and speech training. On the other hand, many prelingually, profound deaf children benefit from a largely visual and signing curriculum.

Faculty in deaf education and audiology have designed a special audiology course for teachers of the deaf which covers basic understanding of the speech and hearing anatomy and functions, the kinds of hearing losses with their ranges, etiologies and basic functions of hearing aids and interpretation of basic audiometric test data. Students can opt to work along side of audiologists-in-training to acquire first-hand knowledge and exposure to how hearing loss is diagnosed, how to read an audiogram, the possible benefits of amplification. They study the controversial cochlear implant, how deaf children function on a day-to-day basis with the implant and current research related to it along with attitudes of parents and the deaf community have towards it. Such a balanced view is necessary in order for teachers to counsel parents. See Figure 2.

Insert Figure 2 about here.

Support services

Deaf students need qualified sign language interpreters, note takers and tutors. These

services can be expensive but are important to ensure success. Universities located in or near major cities have an advantage in being able to draw from a relatively large pool of qualified interpreters. It is constant struggle in smaller towns and rural areas to find sufficient support staff of high caliber.

Programs can support students in other ways including providing increased contact time with instructors. Establishing advisor-mentor relationships with deaf students can be most effective towards ensuring success. Moreover, deaf students can find enormous support from other deaf students. This is also subject to negative influences, though, as negative remarks of some students can influence perspectives and attitudes of other deaf students. But when students support each other in positive ways as in forming study groups, or in joint problem solving, this deaf peer interaction can be effective in ensuring success in school.

Deaf Culture sensitivity

There is a growing awareness of deafness as a cultural-linguistic minority. Many deaf people do not perceive themselves as being "disabled" but instead believe they are a cultural group (Lane, 1992; Shapiro, 1994; Lane, Hoffmeister & Bahan, 1996). In fact, deaf people have had a long history of not wanting to be perceived as handicapped. Deaf groups have refused tax privileges given to the blind and other groups (Van Cleve, 1987). The debate over whether deaf people should be categorized as members of the disability community or viewed as linguistic and cultural minority has reached the national media with heated debates in The Atlantic Monthly, Sunday New York Times, and on the television show, 60 Minutes.

Some view deafness strictly as having a hearing disability (Tyler, 1993). Many deaf

and hard-of-hearing people, particularly those who are postlingually deafened, require the services of otolaryngologists, physicians, and audiologists for medical attention, testing of hearing, the fitting of hearing aids and rehabilitation counseling (Martin, 1995). There are about 20 to 23 million Americans who fit into this category who experience some hearing loss in their lives.

Furthermore, because of their disability status, many deaf citizens attend special schools, receive free and appropriate education from birth to 22 years of age, collect Social Security Income (SSI) and are protected by the American with Disabilities Act (ADA) with provisions of sign language interpreters, telecommunications devices etc. (DuBow, Geer & Strauss, 1992).

However, many deaf Americans and Canadians do not like the term disabled. Instead, these deaf persons wish to be perceived as belonging to a distinct linguistic and cultural community. They are very proud of their rich cultural heritage and many deaf writers and scholars have described and chronicled the accomplishment of their deaf community members (Lang, 1994; Lang & Meath-Lang, 1995; Van Cleve, 1987; Gannon, 1981).

There are about 500,000 deaf persons in the U.S. and Canada who use American Sign Language and consider themselves members of the deaf community. These deaf people talk of having a deaf mind which is a whole composite of shared experiences growing up in a hearing world depending primarily on vision to communicate (Erting and al., 1994). Deaf people feel strong bonds with each other because of this culture, history and shared experiences of being deaf (Higgins, 1980). And deaf students carry these bonds with them to graduate school.

In order for a teacher-training program to be successful, hearing faculty and students need to be aware of these strong feelings of deaf community cohesiveness. As in any cross-cultural situation, misunderstandings can occur. For example, many deaf and hard-of-hearing students feel more comfortable establishing friendships with other deaf students because of the ease of communication and their shared experiences. Hearing students may feel excluded from these deaf groups on campus and may feel intimidated interacting with deaf classmates because their sign language skills are weak.

In a similar vein, many deaf and hard-of-hearing persons have suffered discrimination and rejection by hearing people, including from hearing family members and from hearing teachers and classmates. Deaf students may bring these negative experiences to higher education and project these negative feelings onto others. It takes sensitivity on part of the faculty to recognize this dynamic and try to counsel deaf students to focus on successfully completing their academic work. In most cases, the results are positive and deaf students prove as capable as the other students. However, there are a few cases where the deaf teacher-trainees continue to blame others for their lack of achievement. These angry students are unable to focus on their academic graduate studies. The majority of them, though, successfully complete their programs and go on to work as teachers of deaf children.

There are positive ways that universities can foster deaf cultural sensitivity. One is hiring deaf faculty. Deaf faculty can inform other faculty about deafness issues as well as mentor deaf graduate students. See Figure 3.

Insert Figure 3 about here.

Another way to promote sensitivity is by sponsoring deaf culture workshops bringing in speakers to inform the university community about deafness. This kind of training needs to be ongoing and be provided by members of the deaf community who are experienced.

A third way to promote deaf awareness and sensitivity is by continually evaluating the curriculum. Over emphasis on speech and audiology does not address the needs of deaf students as they will seldom use these speech and hearing competencies in their professional life. Deaf teacher-trainees frequently excel during their practicum experiences working with deaf children. Many times, they serve as models for the hearing graduate student. They are better able to explain to deaf children the lessons and they are typically more proficient in sign language than hearing students are. It is best to capitalize on the strengths of deaf students.

A fourth way is to provide tutors for deaf students who can assist them in the writing of term papers. For many, English is a second language and they have not had the exposure to English as the other hearing students have had.

A fifth way is to help deaf students find teaching and leadership positions by advocating for them upon graduation. As mentioned above, this may mean explaining to public school principals the value of hiring deaf professionals. Our experiences with placing deaf teachers with principals in Texas day schools have been very positive. As mentioned in Part I, we have placed 13 teachers in public school programs with self-contained and mainstreamed classrooms.

Leadership training at the Masters level

Students can be encouraged to join professional organizations as the Convention of

American Instructors of the Deaf (CAID), the National Association of the Deaf (NAD) and Self Help for the Hard of Hearing (SHHH). Faculty can assist students in publishing opinion papers in the Silent News and well as presenting papers at professional conferences. See Figure 4.

Insert Figure 4 about here.

Deaf graduate students can be teachers of sign language classes, can lecture about deafness in other college classes, serve on panels for local community groups as the Boy scouts, Quota clubs and panels on disabilities. These kinds of activities encourage graduate students to invest themselves in their profession prior to graduation.

Final thoughts

Just because a person is deaf or hard-of-hearing does not mean that this individual necessarily will make a good teacher. Teaching deaf children involves more than empathy for deafness and signing skills. Competent teachers need knowledge of content areas, methods of instruction, empathy for parents, multicultural sensitivity, ability to discipline in the classroom and interest in nurturing and advocating for children. But our belief is the field of deaf education is uniquely suited for deaf persons who wish to become teachers. But it is up to the teacher-training institutions to actively recruit, prepare, support, mentor and place deaf adults in teaching positions with young deaf children.

The Texas School for the Deaf in Austin in the past eight years has hired more than 200 deaf persons in a variety of positions including professional administrators, teachers, paraprofessionals and support personnel. This state school can be a model for the nation. But

we need to place additional deaf teachers in public days school programs as this is where the majority of deaf children are.

Because deaf persons, in this century, have been denied positions in schools as teachers and as administrators, we are recommending that public universities continue ongoing efforts towards recruiting and training deaf teachers, providing them with support services and assisting them in locating teaching positions. By placing them in day and residential schools, deaf children will reap the benefits mentioned above. With the American with Disabilities Act (ADA), there is more public awareness and acceptance of deafness. The time is optimum for more deaf teachers to enter the field of education and deafness. With the inclusion concept of mainstreaming more and more deaf children in regular school classrooms, this may prove a challenge for all of us.

Note 1: This survey covered 349 (out of 893) programs with a total of 5,166 teachers and 877 administrators who responded to this survey.

Note 2: There could be more deaf teachers and administrators in Texas who did not respond to our survey.

Note 3: Resource lists are available in from the first author.

Acknowledgments

This paper was supported under U.S. Dept. of Education grant, "The training of deaf teachers in Texas and Louisiana" (G#H029E10067) (1991-1996). We thank Mr. Marvin Sallop, superintendent of the Texas School for the Deaf in Austin for information.

Reference

- American Annals of the Deaf (1995). Directory of programs for deaf children. April issue.
- Andrews, J. & Jordan, D. (1993). Minority and minority-deaf professionals: How many and where are they? American Annals of the Deaf, 138(5), 388-396.
- Andrews, J. (1992). Equal access for deaf teachers in Texas. Deaf American Monograph, 42, 13-18.
- Baker, C. & Cokely, D. (1980). American Sign Language: A teacher's resource text on grammar and structure. Silver Spring, MD: T.J. Publishers.
- Berent, G. (1993). Improvements in the English syntax of deaf college students. American Annals of the Deaf, 138(1), 55-61.
- Bienvenu, M.J. (1994). Reflections of deaf culture in deaf humor. In C. Erting and al. (Eds.). Deaf Way: Perspectives from the International Conference on Deaf Culture. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press. pp.
- Bornstein, H., Hamilton, L. & Saulnier, (1980). Signed English: A first evaluation. American Annals of the Deaf, 125, 467-481.
- Christiansen, J. & Barnartt, S. (1995). Deaf president now! The 1988 revolution at Gallaudet University. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press.
- Coryell, J. (1989). Recruitment of deaf students into teacher preparation program: Research summary. National Technical Institute for the Deaf, Rochester, NY.

- Commission on Education of the Deaf (COED) (1988). Toward equality: Education of the Deaf. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Daniels, S. & Corlett, S. (1990). Deaf students in higher education: A survey of policy and practice. The Royal Institute for the Deaf, Research Report No. 9, London, England.
- DuBow, S., Geer, S. & Strauss, K. (1992). Legal Rights: The guide for deaf and hard of hearing people. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press.
- Erting, C., Johnson, R., Smith, D. & Snider, B. (1994). The deaf way: Perspectives from the international conference on deaf culture. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press.
- Gannon, J. (1981). The deaf heritage: A narrative history of deaf America. Washington, D.C.: National Association of the Deaf.
- Gannon, J. (1989). The day the world heard Gallaudet. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press.
- Gannon, J. (July, 1995). Number of earned doctorates of deaf persons in the U.S. Personal Communication.
- Higgins, P. (1980). Outsiders in a hearing world: A sociology of deafness. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Press.
- Jensema, C., Karchmer, M. & Trybus, R. (1978). Communication patterns and educational achievement of hearing impaired students. Washington, D.C.: Office of Demographic Studies.
- Johnson, R., Erting, C. & Liddell, S. (1989). Unlocking the curriculum: Principles for achieving access in deaf education. Gallaudet Research Institute. Working/occasional paper

series, 98-3. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet Research Institute.

Jones, R. (1986). Can deaf students succeed in a public university? ACE-HI Journal, 12(1), 43-49.

Lane, H. (1984). When the mind hears: A history of the deaf. New York: Random House.

Lane, H. (1992). The mask of benevolence: Disabling the deaf community. New York: Random House.

Lang, H. (1994). Silence of the spheres: The deaf experience in the history of science. Westport, CN: Bergin & Garvey.

Lang, H. & Meath-Lang, B. (1995). Deaf persons in the arts and sciences: A biographical dictionary. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group, Inc.

Luetke-Stahlman, B. & Luckner, J. (1992). Effectively educating students with hearing impairments. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Lytle, R. & Mounty, J. (April, 1992). Beyond written English: Assessing competencies of deaf teachers. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association (AERA), San Francisco, CA.

Martin, F. (1995). Introduction to audiology. Fifth edition. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Martin, D. & Prickett, H. (April, 1993). National task force on equity in testing deaf professionals: Open meeting. Paper presented at the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, 56th Biennial Meeting, Baltimore, MD.

Moore, D. (1995). Educating the deaf. Fourth edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Moulton, R., Roth, R. & Tao, J. (1987). Barriers to the teaching profession for hearing

impaired adults. American Annals of the Deaf, 132(5), 372-375.

Moulton, R., Roth, R., & Winney, B. (1983). State certification standards and reciprocity for teachers of the hearing impaired. American Annals of the Deaf, 128(4), 490-498.

Prickett, H. & Martin, D. (1991). Standardized testing of deaf teachers: Results of a survey of schools and programs for deaf children and university training programs. Unpublished

manuscript, Western Maryland College and Gallaudet University. Schick, B. &

Moeller, M. (1992). What is learnable in manually coded English sign systems? Applied Psycholinguistics, 13, 313-340.

Silo, J. (1990). The role of deaf teachers in the education of deaf children: United Kingdom.

Paper presented at the 17th International Congress on Education of the Deaf. Rochester,

NY.

Stedt, J. & Moores, D. (1990). Manual codes on English and American Sign Language:

Historical perspectives and current realities. In H Bornstein (ed.). Manual communication:

Implications for education. Washington, D.C.: Gallaudet University Press. pp. 1-20.

Stokoe, W. (1960). Sign language structure: An outline of the visual communication systems

of the American deaf. Studies in Linguistics, Occasional paper 8, University of Buffalo,

NY.

Stokoe, W. (1993). Dictionary making: Then & now. Sign Language Studies, 79, 127-146.

Strong, M. (1995). A review of bilingual/bicultural programs for deaf children in North

America. American Annals of the Deaf, 140(2), 84-94.

Texas Education Agency (TEA) & Advocacy, Inc., (1991). Panel on bias in the ExCET.

Austin, TX. Jan. 16-17, 1991.

Texas Education Agency (TEA). Guidelines for testing of deaf teachers in teacher-training programs. Austin, Tx.

Texas Association of the Deaf (TAD), (1991). The report on the ad hoc task force on education of the deaf in Texas, Austin, TX.

Tyler, R. (1993). Cochlear implants and the deaf culture. American Journal of Audiology, March, 1993, pp. 26-32.

Van Cleve, J. (1987). Gallaudet encyclopedia of deaf people and deafness. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

Van Cleve, J. (1995). Deafness. Groliers Encyclopedia for Multimedia.

Venn, J., Serwatka, T. & Shreve, A. (1982). The selection of competencies for certifying teachers in hearing disabilities in Florida. American Annals of the Deaf, 127, 433-446.

Vernon, M. & Andrews, J. (1990). The psychology of deafness: Understanding deaf and hard of hearing people. White Plains, NY: Longman. pp. 97-100.

Vernon, M. & Daigle, B. (1994). Bilingual and bicultural education. Deaf American Monograph, 44, 121-126.

Vernon, M. (1987). Controversy in sign language. ACE-HI Journal, 12, 155-164.

Vernon, M. (1970). The role of deaf teachers in the education of deaf children. Deaf American, 22, 17-20.

Figure 4: Publications and conference presentations by
deaf graduate students

PUBLICATIONS:

- Sibley, K. (1995). The Silent News
- Andrews, J. & Covell, J. (1993). Magnet schools: Future bilingual day schools for deaf students. Deaf American Monograph, 43, 1-9.
- Knight, J. (Nov. 1993). In the same boat, but oceans apart. The Silent News. p. 3.
- Kuester, E. (November, 1992). My two lives. The Silent News.
- Parks, S. & Parks, J. (Sept. 27, 1992). Deaf need captions. Editorial in Beaumont Enterprise.
- Pepperday, J. (Sept/Oct. 1991). "To teach is to learn twice over." SHHH Journal, pp. 11-14.
- Shoemaker, D. (August, 1992). Why do we teach down to deaf children? The Silent News.
- Slaughter, R. (Feb. 1992). I want to teach deaf children. The Silent News, 1, 3.
- Smith, Z. & Carey, C. (1994). Deaf history, Texas style. The Deaf American Monograph, 44, 107-110.
- Turcsany, K. (December, 1993). Standardized tests are tough, but don't give up. The Silent News.

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS:

Turcsany, K., Slaughter, R., Matthew, H., Shoemake, D. & Shoemake, C. Deaf teachers: Removing barriers in deaf education. Panel/paper presented at the National

Association of the Deaf (NAD) meeting in Denver, Colorado on July 2, 1992.

Carey, C., Turcsany, K., Kuester, E., Shoemake, D. & Shoemake, C. Deaf teachers: Why we need them. Paper/panel presented at the 1992 Statewide Conference for the Deaf in Austin, Texas on August 12, 1992.

Katz, C. Reflections of a deaf adult learning to read and write. Paper presented at the International Reading Association (IRA) on May 2, 1995.

Katz, C. Black studies, woman's studies and deaf studies: A comparison. Paper presented at the Deaf Studies IV conference in Boston, MA in March, 1995.

Table 1: Survey of Deaf/Hard-Of-Hearing (HOH) and Hearing Teachers in the U.S.

Race	Hearing Status		No.	%
	Hearing	Deaf/HOH		
White	3,899	739	4,638	89.8
Black	306	39	345	6.7
Hispanic	89	15	104	2.0
Asian	45	9	54	1.0
Other	22	3	25	0.5
Total	4,631	905	5,166	100

Table 2: Survey of Deaf/Hard-Of-Hearing (HOH) and Hearing Administrators in the U.S.

Race	Hearing Status		No.	%
	Hearing	Deaf/HOH		
White	668	106	774	88.3
Black	49	3	52	5.9
Hispanic	31	4	35	4.0
Asian	5	1	6	0.7
Other	10	0	10	1.1
Total	763	114	877	100

Table 3: Survey of Deaf/Hard-Of-Hearing (HOH)
Teachers in Texas

Race	No.	%
White	53	91.0
Black	1	2.0
Hispanic	3	5.0
Asian	1	2.0
Other		
Total	58	100.0

Table 4: Survey of Deaf/Hard-Of-Hearing (HOH)
Administrators in Texas

Race	No.	%
White	6	75.0
Black	0	0.0
Hispanic	2	25.0
Asian	0	0.0
Other		
Total	8	100.0

Table 5: Survey of Deaf Programs Deaf/Hard-Of-Hearing (HOH)
Teachers/Administrators in Texas

			Deaf Teachers		Deaf Administrators	
			Female	Male	Female	Male
1. TSD-Texas School For Deaf	RES		17	15	1	1
2. SWCID-Southwest Collegiate Institute For The Deaf	PS		4	4	0	0
3. Dallas RDSPD	PUB		3	1	0	0
4. San Antonio RDSPD	PUB		2	1	1	0
5. El Paso	PUB		0	1	0	0
6. Lufkin	PUB		1	0	0	0
7. Mesquite	PUB		0	0	1	1
8. Mt. Pleasant	PS		1	0	0	0
9. Lubbock	PS		0	1	0	0
10. Kileen	PUB		1	1	0	0
11. McAllen	PUB		1	0	0	1
12. LU-Beaumont	PS		0	3	0	0
13. Bryan ISD	PUB		1	0	0	1
Total			31	27	3	5

RES = Residential School

PS = Postsecondary Program

PUB = Public Day School Program

Table 6: Top State Which Employ Deaf/Hard-Of-Hearing (HOH) Teachers and Administrators

Rank	State	Number of Deaf Professionals
1.	DC	171
2.	NY	82
3.	MD	74
4.	TX	66
5.	CA	60
6.	FL	39
7.	AZ	38
8.	CT	24
9.	LA, NC	22
10.	OH	20

Table 7

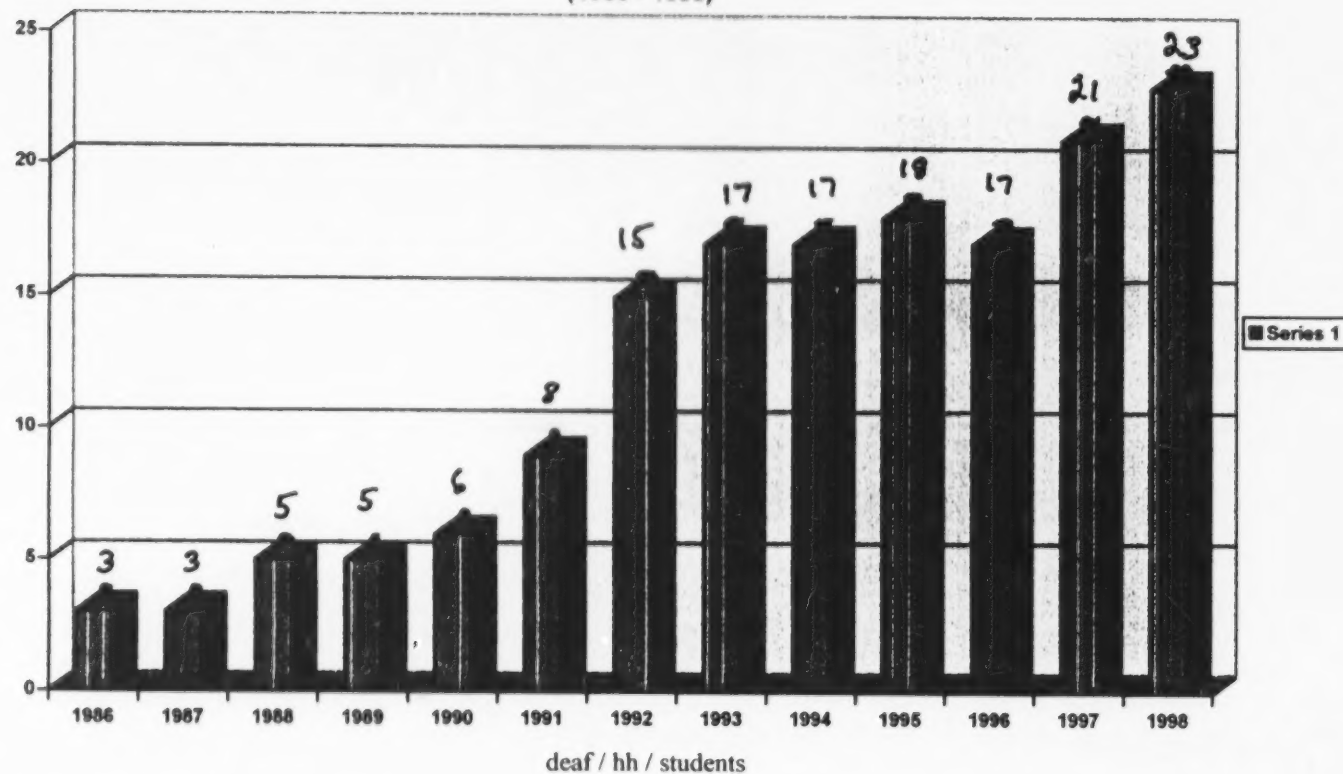
Number of Deaf/HOH Graduate

Years	# of Deaf/HOH Graduate
1991	0
1992	2
1993	2
1994	6
1995	5
1996	4
	Total 19

Note:

- *5 Are employed at Texas School for Deaf, Louisiana School for Deaf or Southwest Collegiate Institute for Deaf, Kansas School for Deaf
- *13 Are employed in day school program for the Deaf in Bryan, Houston, McAllen, Corpus Christi and Midland, Texas and Phoenix Day School
- *1 Is employed as deafness consultant for Ultimate Home Health Care in Beaumont, Texas

DEAF / HARD - OF - HEARING STUDENTS
IN DEAF EDUCATION AT LAMAR
(1986 - 1998)



DOE "Deaf Teachers" Grant, Mentor Grant, Doctoral Grants began Fall, 1991

BEST COPY AVAILABLE